



A highly active and stable bimetallic Ni-Mo₂C catalyst for a partial oxidation of jet fuel

Qusay Bkour^a, Oscar G. Marin-Flores^a, M. Grant Norton^{a,b,*}, Su Ha^{a,*}

^a The Gene and Linda Voiland School of Chemical Engineering and Bioengineering, Washington State University, P.O. Box 646515, Pullman, WA, 99164-6515, USA

^b School of Mechanical and Materials Engineering, Washington State University, P.O. Box 642920, Pullman, WA, 99164-2920, USA

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Fuel reforming
Jet fuel
Molybdenum carbide
Isotope exchange
In-situ XRD

ABSTRACT

Mo₂C is an attractive catalyst for fuel reforming reactions because it possesses both a high activity and a high coking resistance. However, Mo₂C catalysts cannot guarantee sufficient long-term stability during fuel reforming reactions that operate at a high fuel flow rate due to their phase instability. The present investigation is focused on improving the phase stability and the performance of Mo₂C by addition of Ni for the partial oxidation (POX) of jet fuel. Mo₂C and Ni-Mo₂C were first prepared from CH₄/H₂ carburization of synthesized MoO₃ and NiMoO₄, respectively. To investigate the catalytic activity of carburized catalysts for the POX of jet fuel, tests were conducted at 750 °C and 1 atm, with a weight-hourly-space-velocity (WHSV) of 42 h⁻¹ and O₂/C ratio of 0.6. The Mo₂C sample without Ni shows a performance similar to that of a blank run (in the absence of catalyst) with 70% conversion, 12% H₂ yield, and 53% CO yield. The poor performance of Mo₂C is due to its partial phase transformation into the MoO₃ phase at the high WHSV. For Ni-Mo₂C, the catalyst exhibits excellent stability over the 24 h test period with carbon conversion of 90% and H₂ and CO yields of 56 and 63%, respectively. There were no indications of bulk oxidation or surface coking. Temperature-programmed reaction and isotopic exchange experiments showed that Ni-Mo₂C follows the “catalytic oxidation and re-carburization cycle.” In this cycle, molecular oxygen is activated over the Mo₂C surface, and the activated oxygen species react with lattice carbons from Mo₂C to produce both CO and carbon vacancies. Hydrocarbons are decomposed into H₂ and surface carbons over the metallic Ni sites. To sustain the catalytic cycle, the Mo₂C_{1-x} phase (i.e., non-stoichiometric Mo₂C with carbon vacancies) is re-carburized by the surface carbons deposited on the metallic Ni sites. Finally, our results also showed that NiMoO₄ can be rapidly carburized *in-situ* to form a high performance Ni-Mo₂C catalyst under a flowing mixture of *n*-dodecane and air.

1. Introduction

National energy security and global climate change concerns are greatly impacting future aircraft design, notably through the concept of the More Electric Airplane (MEA). MEA systems substitute hydraulic and pneumatic systems with electrical ones and replace the conventional low-efficiency gas turbine auxiliary power unit (APU) with a solid oxide fuel cell (SOFC) APU [1]. Fuel cells generate electrical power from the chemical energy of fuels in a cleaner and more efficient way than heat engines because they are not limited by the same thermodynamic constraints and produce much lower emissions than conventional generators [2–4]. However, the lack of a robust H₂ distribution infrastructure and the difficulty of hydrogen storage limits the effectiveness of SOFCs and has led to a focus onboard H₂ production

from catalytic reforming of logistic liquid fuels such as kerosene-based aviation fuels, which are already present on commercial and military airplanes [5].

The reforming of logistic liquid fuels for fuel cell applications is a challenging proposition due to severe coking and sulfur poisoning issues. Therefore, the successful reforming of these hydrocarbons will largely depend on the development of new catalysts with much improved coking and sulfur poisoning resistances. Reforming of liquid fuels has been carried out over transition metal-based catalysts typically containing precious (noble) metals (e.g., Pd, Ru, Rh) [6–12]. Nevertheless, the high cost for even low loading of these noble metals prevents their widespread use. Ni-based catalysts are known as inexpensive catalytic materials for their liquid hydrocarbon reforming reactions. However, Ni sites rapidly deactivate due to severe coke formation [13].

* Corresponding authors at: The Gene and Linda Voiland School of Chemical Engineering and Bioengineering, Washington State University, P.O. Box 646515, Pullman, WA, 99164-6515, USA.

E-mail addresses: mng_norton@wsu.edu (M.G. Norton), suha@wsu.edu (S. Ha).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2019.01.027>

Received 7 September 2018; Received in revised form 28 December 2018; Accepted 9 January 2019

Available online 10 January 2019

0926-3373/ © 2019 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

Transition metal carbides (TMCs) have attracted considerable attention because of their unique chemical and physical properties as well as their lower cost. TMCs have risen as prominent materials in heterogeneous catalysis and for the electro-catalysis of oxygen-containing species, which are likely related to strong carbide-oxygen interactions [14]. TMCs possess high electric and thermal conductivities. They are hard and have high melting temperatures [15]. It has been established that TMCs such as W and Mo have catalytic properties similar to those of noble metals [16]. Thus, TMCs show high activities in various catalytic reactions including: water gas shift [17–20], hydrogenation [21], desulfurization [22–24], CO₂ reduction [25,26], biomass conversion [27–30], and hydrocarbon isomerization [31].

Mo₂C is also an attractive catalyst for methane reforming because it does not require an excess of oxidant to operate without coke deposition [32–34]. Mo carbides have exhibited O₂ splitting activity similar to late transition metals, but with lower dissociation energy barriers [35]. It has been found that the stability of Mo₂C is strongly influenced by its tendency to transform into MoO_x under given redox environments [36]. Several studies have focused on the oxidation stability of Mo₂C during reforming reactions operated at atmospheric pressure at high temperature (> 950 °C) [37–40]. The Shi group focused on improving the stability of Mo₂C for methane reforming by doping it with Ni. They synthesized Ni-modified Mo₂C by temperature-programmed carburization of NiMoO_x in a gas flow of CH₄/H₂ or CH₄/CO₂ [41]. The authors proposed that the rate of carburization of MoO_x is higher than Mo₂C oxidation over Ni-Mo₂C catalysts during methane dry reforming (MDR). Thus, Ni-Mo₂C catalysts maintained the carbide phase over the reaction time.

There are many other studies carried out on the performance of Mo₂C and its stability for methane reforming [32–34]. However, there have been very few published studies related to its performance and stability using liquid hydrocarbon fuels under reforming conditions. In 2006, the Thomson group [42] studied the feasibility of using Mo₂C as an efficient and inexpensive catalyst for the steam reforming (SR) and oxy-SR of 2,2,4-trimethylpentane (isooctane). They found that maximum hydrogen generation (85%) was observed at a steam/carbon ratio (S/C) of 1.3. Although the catalyst activity and stability were good, it was operated at a low space velocity (2 g of catalyst and gas-hourly-space-velocity GHSV = 1500 h⁻¹) and very high temperature (1000 °C). In 2008, Marin et al. [43] studied the performance of Mo₂C catalysts for isooctane SR. They found that a short H₂ pretreatment was needed to eliminate high oxidation states of Mo on the catalyst surface, namely oxycarbide Mo⁵⁺ and trioxide Mo⁶⁺. Although the catalyst showed high activity at 850 °C and S/C of 1, it was also tested at a low weight-hourly-space-velocity (WHSV) of 1.8 h⁻¹ and only initial performance was observed without long-term stability tests.

To the best of our knowledge, there are no published studies for either POX of jet fuel or SR of jet fuel at high space velocities over Mo₂C-based catalysts. In this work, Mo₂C and Ni-Mo₂C were prepared from CH₄/H₂ carburization of as synthesized MoO₃ and NiMoO₄, respectively. The catalytic reforming performances of samples were tested at a moderate temperature of 750 °C and a high WHSV of 42 h⁻¹ for POX of both *n*-dodecane (model jet fuel) and actual jet fuel obtained from the local airport. In the present work, we also examined the feasibility of *in-situ* synthesis of Ni-Mo₂C (or Mo₂C) under the POX condition of *n*-dodecane from NiMoO₄ (or MoO₃). This work provides insight into the mechanism of the phase transformation of MoO₃ and NiMoO₄ into β-Mo₂C and Ni-Mo₂C, respectively, using *in-situ* XRD during the carburization reaction. In addition, in an attempt to explore the possibility of the redox mechanism for Ni-Mo₂C, which involves carbon exchange between pure hydrocarbons and carbide, we performed pulse isotopic exchange experiments with CH₄ over ¹³C-labelled Ni-Mo₂C.

2. Experimental

2.1. Catalyst synthesis

We prepared NiMoO₄ using a combustion technique. For this, nickel nitrate Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (2.66 g), ammonium heptamolybdate (AHM) (NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄·4H₂O (1.615 g), and glycine C₂H₅NO₂ (0.68 g) were dissolved in 50 ml distilled water separately and then combined to form a homogenous mixture. The mixture was then heated to 300 °C using a resistance heating furnace (Aroma, AHP-303). The resulting foamy powder was calcined at 500 °C for 4 h to obtain a single phase compound. MoO₃ and NiO were prepared as references using the same method with AHM and nickel nitrate precursors, respectively.

NiMoO₄ and MoO₃ were carburized in 20% CH₄/H₂ (66.7 mL/min) to Ni-Mo₂C and Mo₂C, respectively, through the following series of temperature-programmed processes: [1] the temperature was raised from room temperature to 300 °C in a span of 1 h [2], then increased from 300 to 700 °C at a rate of 1 °C min⁻¹, and [3] maintained at 700 °C for 2 h. The final material was cooled down to room temperature in flowing 20% CH₄/H₂ and passivated in a mixture of 2% O₂/Ar for 5 h.

2.2. Characterization

The crystalline phases of the catalytic materials were determined by X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a Rigaku (Miniflex 600) with Cu Kα radiation operated at 40 kV, 15 mA in steps of 0.01° with a scanning rate at 1 °C/min from 20° to 60°. Jade software was used for peak identification. Temperature-programmed carburization (TPC) studies were performed by loading 50 mg of the sample in a quartz tube reactor. The sample was preheated at 400 °C for 15 min under flowing Ar to remove adsorbed CO₂ and H₂O and cooled down to room temperature in flowing Ar. TPC profiles were obtained using a 5975C Agilent mass spectrometer with triple-axis detector with real-time gas analysis capability provided by Diablo Analytical. The sample was heated from room temperature to 750 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min in a flow of 20% CH₄/H₂ (67 mL/min) and maintained at 700 °C for 2 h. The signal intensity of H₂O (m/e = 18), CO (m/e = 28), H₂ (m/e = 2), CH₄ (m/e = 15), and CO₂ (m/e = 44) were monitored at a sampling rate of 1 s⁻¹. The reducibility of the samples was measured by temperature-programmed reduction (TPR): 100 mg of sample was placed in a quartz U-tube and pretreated with flowing He at rate of 50 mL/min. Following the pretreatment, 10% H₂/He was introduced at the same flow rate, while the temperature was ramped from 25 to 900 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min.

The catalytic partial oxidation (CPOX) of *n*-dodecane was performed in an isothermal fixed-bed tubular quartz reactor loaded with 50 mg of catalyst fixed in place by a quartz wool plug. A K-type thermocouple (Omega) was placed at the center of the catalyst bed to record and control sample temperature. Prior to the reaction, the passivated sample was reactivated with 20% CH₄/H₂ at 700 °C for 0.5 h. The reactant feed was composed of *n*-dodecane and air at an O₂/C ratio of 0.6 and was introduced to the reactor at WHSV of 42 h⁻¹ at atmospheric pressure and 750 °C. Digital mass flow controllers and a syringe pump were used to control the flow rates of air and *n*-dodecane, respectively. The product stream was cooled to 5 °C to separate the condensable and gaseous products. The composition of the dry effluent gas (H₂, CO, CH₄, CO₂, C₂H₂ and C₂H₄) was analyzed by an SRI gas chromatograph equipped with molecular sieve 13X and HayeSep D packed columns and thermal conductivity detector. The conversion of *n*-dodecane during CPOX was calculated according to Eq. (1). The H₂ and CO yields were calculated according to Eqs. (2) and (3), respectively.

$$\% \text{ Conversion} = \frac{\text{moles of (CO + CO}_2\text{ + CH}_4\text{) produced}}{12 * \text{moles of } n - \text{dodecane fed}} \quad (1)$$

$$\% \text{H}_2 \text{ Yield} = \frac{2 * \text{moles of H}_2 \text{ produced}}{26 * \text{moles of } n - \text{dodecane fed}} \quad (2)$$

$$\% \text{CO Yield} = \frac{\text{moles of CO produced}}{12 * \text{moles of } n - \text{dodecane fed}} \quad (3)$$

An oxygen pulsing experiment was conducted to seek direct evidence about the activation of O_2 over Mo_2C . In this experiment, 100 mg of Mo_2C was placed inside a quartz tube reactor and held by quartz wool. A flow of 50 sccm of ultra-pure argon was used to purge the reactor at room temperature for approximately 1 h, while 50 sccm of reactive gas (25% O_2 in Ar) was vented in parallel. Both streams entered separately into a 4-way pneumatic ball valve. After reaching the reaction temperature (750 °C), consecutive 5-s pulses of reactive gas were sent to the sample between 2 min purges of argon. Throughout the experiment, the concentration of the gases was monitored using a real-time gas analyzer mass spectrometer.

To conform the role of the lattice carbons present in the catalyst during the POX reaction, ^{13}C labelled Ni-Mo $_2\text{C}$ (Ni-Mo $_2^{13}\text{C}$) was prepared and an isotope exchange study was performed. The Ni-Mo $_2^{13}\text{C}$ was prepared in a fixed bed reactor, in which $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ (50 mL/min) was fed to a NiMoO_4 sample at 700 °C. In the isotope exchange study, 50 mg of Ni-Mo $_2^{13}\text{C}$ was loaded into a quartz tube and heated to 750 °C under flowing He. Consecutive 5-s pulses of reactive gas (a gas mixture consisted of 8 mL/min $^{12}\text{CH}_4$ and 19.8 mL/min air with O_2/C of 0.5) were introduced to the catalyst at 750 °C and 1 atm between 2 min purges of He. The products were analyzed using on-line mass spectrometry.

3. Results and discussion

The XRD patterns of NiO, MoO_3 , and NiMoO_4 are shown in Fig. 1 (A–C). Strong and sharp peaks attributable to NiO ($2\theta = 37.3$ and 43.5°) corresponding to diffraction from the (111) and (200) crystal planes were observed in the NiO sample, which indicated the formation of a pure cubic NiO phase (buneneite, NaCl type structure) [44]. The crystallite size of the prepared NiO, calculated from the XRD pattern using the Debye-Scherrer equation, is 26.9 nm. For the MoO_3 sample, the peaks at $2\theta = 23.5, 25.7, 27.3, 29.8, 33.6, 35.5, 39.1, 46.3, 49.3, 52.7, 55.2$, and 58.9° are attributed to the presence of orthorhombic (α - MoO_3 (JCPDS card No. 35-0609) [45]. The XRD pattern of NiMoO_4 shows the formation of the α - NiMoO_4 phase.

The XRD patterns for NiMoO_4 and MoO_3 after carbothermal treatment in a CH_4/H_2 gas mixture are shown in Fig. 1(D) and (E), respectively. Peaks at 2θ of $34.4, 38.0, 39.4$ and 52.1° for the MoO_3 sample after the carbothermal treatment are assigned to the hexagonal β - Mo_2C

phase. Both hexagonal β - Mo_2C and metallic nickel ($2\theta = 44.5$, and 51.8°) are observed from the NiMoO_4 sample after the carbothermal treatment. No peaks corresponding to metallic molybdenum were observed from the NiMoO_4 sample after the carbothermal treatment [46,47]. The results indicated the complete carburization of MoO_3 and NiMoO_4 samples to form Mo_2C and Ni-Mo $_2\text{C}$, respectively. As calculated from the Ni diffraction peak at 44.5° for the Ni-Mo $_2\text{C}$ sample, the Ni crystallite size was 23 nm.

The reducibility of NiO, NiMoO_4 , and MoO_3 samples were studied via H_2 -TPR (Fig. SI 1). As for NiO, one main reduction peak was observed at about 345 °C, which is ascribed to the reduction of NiO to metallic Ni [48,49]. The peak has a shoulder at around 410 °C, which can be assigned to the reduction of the larger particles [50]. The TPR profile of MoO_3 shows two distinct reduction peaks at around 700 and 865 °C. The sharp peak at 700 °C corresponds to the reduction of MoO_3 ($\text{MoO}_3 \rightarrow \text{MoO}_2$) and the peak at 820 °C is associated with the reduction of MoO_2 ($\text{MoO}_2 \rightarrow \text{Mo}$) [51]. A minor peak at around 720 °C can be ascribed to Mo_4O_{11} formed by reduction of MoO_3 ($\text{MoO}_3 \rightarrow \text{Mo}_4\text{O}_{11}$) [52–55]. For the NiMoO_4 sample, a minor reduction peak at 330 °C and two major peaks at 495 and 690 °C are observed. It is reported that NiMoO_4 partially decomposes into NiO and MoO_x under the H_2 reduction environment [56,57]. We believe that the reduction of NiO immediately occurred at the lowest temperature of 330 °C, while the reduction peaks at 495 and 690 °C are due to the reduction of MoO_x [16,58]. It is also noted that, compared with MoO_3 and NiO, the reduction of molybdenum in NiMoO_4 is easier as evidenced by the peak shifting to lower temperatures. It is clear that the presence of Ni has a substantial effect on the reduction of Mo oxide species due to interactions between Mo and Ni [41].

Fig. 2 displays the results of TPC obtained over MoO_3 and NiMoO_4 in a gas stream of 20% CH_4/H_2 . In general, with the consumption of CH_4 ($m/e = 15$) there is clear production of both CO ($m/e = 28$) and H_2O ($m/e = 18$) over the two samples. The consumption peak of H_2 ($m/e = 2$) is weak due to the poor sensitivity of H_2 . In addition to this similarity in the TPC profiles of the two samples, they also show distinctly different characteristics. Over NiMoO_4 , one can divide the profile into two regions. Below 500 °C, there is a significant amount of H_2O formation with a small amount of CO formation, indicating that the reduction mainly takes place by H_2 rather than by CH_4 [16]. One can deduce that there is complete reduction of NiO to metallic Ni by H_2 below 500 °C. At temperatures higher than 500 °C, there is a large peak in CO generation accompanied by the formation of H_2O , which can be assigned to the carburization of MoO_x to Mo_2C at this higher temperature. The results are consistent with the H_2 -TPR observation that the H_2 reduces NiMoO_4 to both Ni metal and MoO_x at temperatures

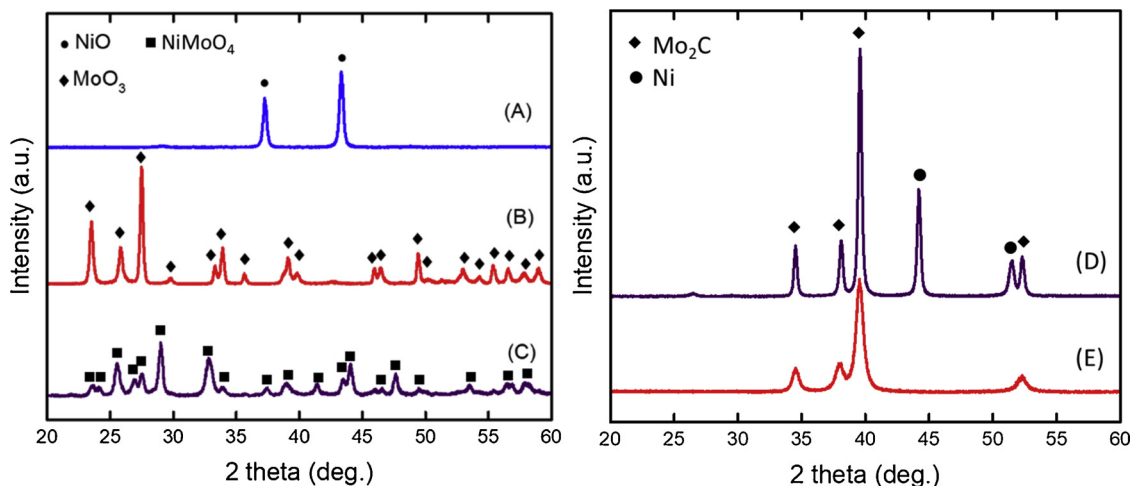


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of NiO (A), MoO_3 (B), NiMoO_4 (C) Ni-Mo $_2\text{C}$ (D), and Mo_2C (E). The carbide samples were formed after carburization of oxide samples using 20% CH_4/H_2 in N_2 carrier gas.

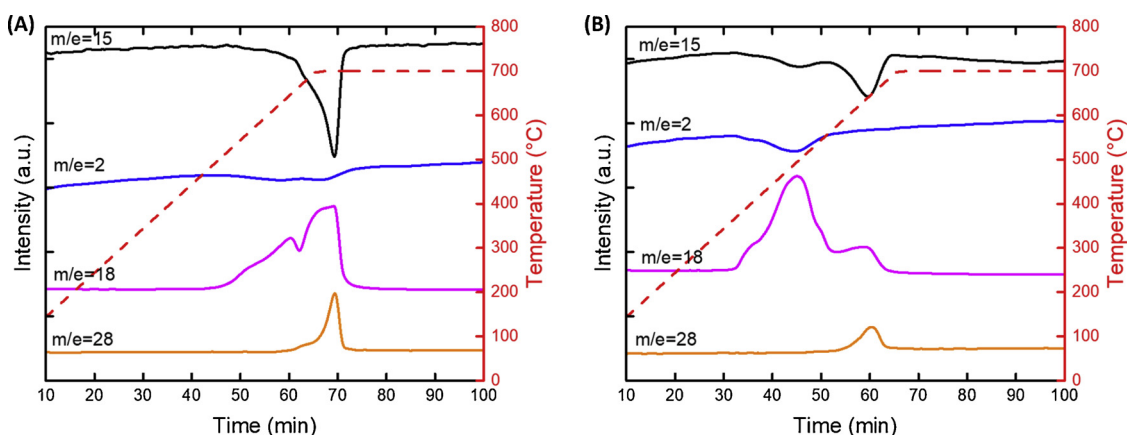
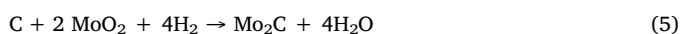
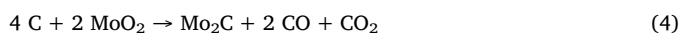
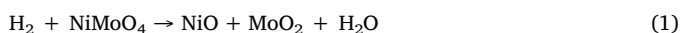


Fig. 2. 20% CH₄/H₂-TPC profiles of MoO₃ (A) and NiMoO₄ (B).

below 500 °C. At higher temperatures CH₄ dissociates over Ni to promote the MoO_x conversion into Mo₂C. It is worth noting that the carburization temperature for NiMoO₄ is 635 °C, while MoO₃ is carburized after reaching 700 °C and holding at temperature for 3 min. Based on CH₄/H₂ TPC results, we can deduce that the carburization of NiMoO₄ occurs at a lower temperature compared with MoO₃. It has been shown by other groups that the carburization temperature of MoO_x to Mo₂C is lowered by the presence of Ni and that NiMoO₄ is reduced at lower temperatures than those required for MoO₃ reduction [16,59–61].

In order to investigate the variation in the crystal phases of NiMoO₄ during the carburization process, a set of experiments were performed using *in-situ* XRD, which allows us to detect the appearance of new crystalline phases for any intermediates as the samples are exposed to 20%CH₄ in Ar at 750 °C. NiMoO₄ has two monoclinic atmospheric pressure isomorphs (space group C2/m) [62]: α-NiMoO₄ is octahedral and stable at room temperature, while β-NiMoO₄ is tetrahedral and formed by heating the α form above 690 °C [63]. Although both phases have differently coordinated Mo⁶⁺ ions, Ni²⁺ ions occur in sites with octahedral coordination in both cases. Mazzocchi et al. [64] found that at 590 °C, both phases coexist. However, a minimum temperature of 700 °C is required to obtain full conversion into the pure β phase. Our *in-situ* XRD analysis (Fig. SI 2) also indicates that at temperatures higher than 700 °C, the β phase is formed. Fig. 3 (A) shows the changes in the diffractogram of the NiMoO₄ while feeding 20%CH₄ in H₂. After a short time of feeding CH₄/H₂, the diffraction peaks due to β-NiMoO₄ disappeared and the diffraction peaks of MoO₂ and Ni appeared indicating that NiMoO₄ has been converted to MoO₂ and metallic Ni during the initial carburization process [41,65]. The MoO₂ peaks disappeared over time, while peaks of Mo₂C appeared without forming a metallic Mo phase.

The XRD results shown in Fig. 3 are consistent with the TPC observation that NiMoO₄ decomposes into NiO (which immediately reduces to Ni metal under the H₂ reducing condition) and MoO₂, and this Ni species enhance CH₄ dissociation to promote the further transformation of MoO₂ into Mo₂C. In summary, we propose that Reactions (1)–(5) occur in the carburization process. Based on the TPC results, MoO₂ can be carburized at higher temperatures than 500 °C to form Mo₂C via either Reaction (4) forming the CO_x species or Reaction (5) forming H₂O.



In-situ XRD was also performed using the pure MoO₂ phase without the presence of Ni. At the same CH₄ concentration used for the NiMoO₄ carburization, the MoO₂ phase was unchanged for the first 7 h (Fig. 3 (B)). The metallic Mo phase was detected after 6 h. The Mo₂C phase was detected after 9 h. The final result was a ternary solid oxide phase composed of MoO₂, Mo, and β-Mo₂C. Full carburization to Mo₂C was not achieved even after 10 h without the metallic Ni phase, which indicates that either (a) more time, (b) higher CH₄ concentration, or (c) higher temperatures are needed to complete the transformation. Ni metal therefore appears to be crucial in facilitating the dissociation of CH₄ to form the active carbon species, which is one of key steps for carburization. Without the sufficient amount of active carbons, the MoO₂ phase would be reduced to the metallic Mo phase instead of forming Mo₂C [20].

To investigate the catalytic activity of carburized catalysts for the POX of *n*-dodecane, we conducted their reforming tests at 750 °C and 1 atm, using a high WHSV of 42 h⁻¹ and O₂/C ratio of 0.6, according to the following stoichiometric reaction:



Fig. 4 shows the H₂ yield, CO yield, and carbon conversion for the Ni, Mo₂C, and Ni-Mo₂C catalysts. For the Ni catalyst (after *in-situ* reduction of NiO with H₂), there is a rapid deactivation along with a severe pressure drop due to the formation of carbon deposits on the surface of the catalyst, which can be seen in XRD data of its spent sample (Fig. 4 (D)). Mo₂C (Fig. 4 (B)) has a performance similar to that of the blank run (in the absence of catalyst) with 12% H₂ yield, 53% CO yield, and 70% conversion. The XRD data of spent Mo₂C (Fig. 4 (E)) shows new diffraction peaks aside from the Mo₂C peaks at 2θ of 26.0, 37.0, and 53.6° that are attributable to the MoO₂ phase. This mixed phase is mainly responsible for the inactivity of Mo₂C as shown in Fig. 4 (B). Under the POX reaction condition, molecular O₂ would be easily activated over the pyrophoric Mo₂C surface to form active oxygen species (O*), while the *n*-dodecane would decompose via the gas-phase reaction to create the various carbon fragments. These carbon fragments can be further reformed over the catalytic surface to form the surface carbon species. The active oxygen species can react with these carbon species to prevent surface coking. However, if the concentration of active oxygen species is higher than that of carbon species, Mo₂C would be oxidized to form the catalytically inactive mixed phase. In the case of Mo₂C without the metallic Ni phase, its ability to activate the carbon fragments into the surface carbon species would be limited. Consequently, the concentration of active oxygen species would be higher than that of the carbon species, which leads to the phase transition of Mo₂C into oxide phases and the formation of the mixed phase. Unlike Mo₂C, in the case of Ni-Mo₂C (Fig. 4 (C)), the catalyst exhibits excellent activity and stability over the 24 h test period, showing carbon

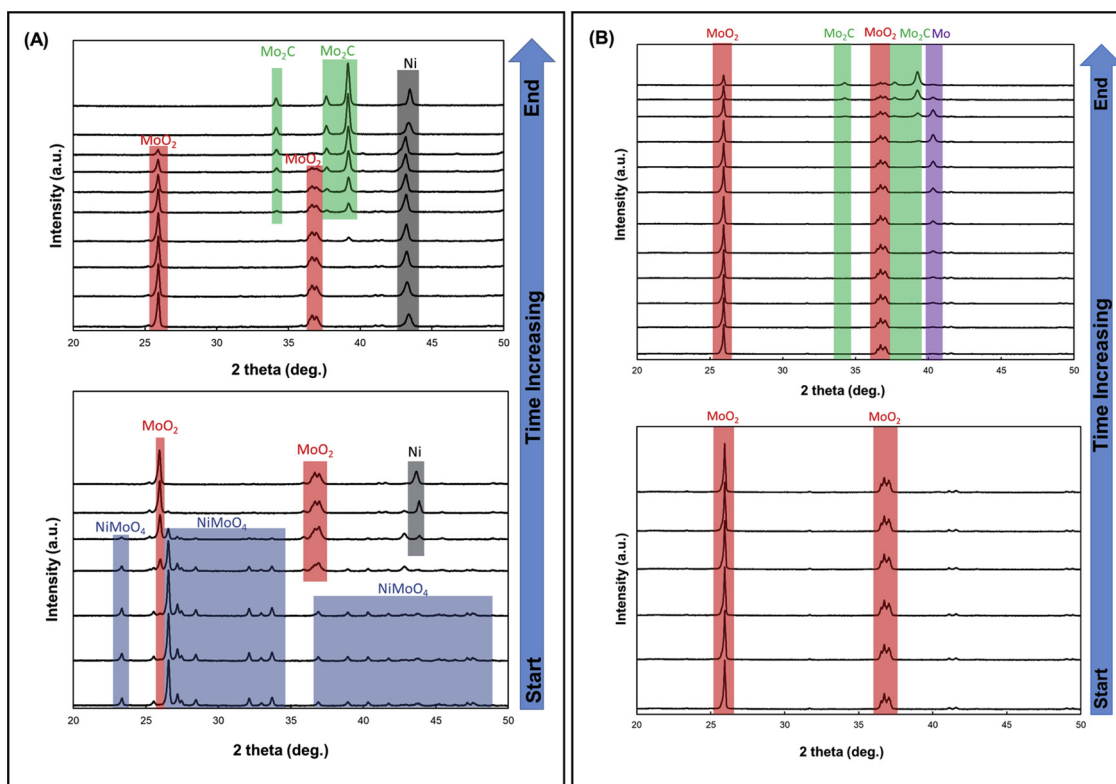


Fig. 3. *In-situ* XRD for the carburization process of NiMoO₄ (A) and MoO₂ (B) in 20% CH₄/H₂ at 750 °C. Start and End notations on the tail and top of the arrow correspond to the initial and final exposure time, respectively.

conversion around 90% with H₂ and CO yields of 56 and 63%, respectively. XRD patterns of the spent Ni-Mo₂C (Fig. 4 (F)) indicate only Mo₂C and Ni phases. No oxides or coke deposits were detected. For Ni-Mo₂C, the hydrocarbon fragments from the gas phase reaction can be more easily activated over Ni metal surfaces to form the surface carbon species, which can recarburize the MoOx to Mo₂C [16,60,66]. In other words, the presence of metallic Ni can increase the stability of the Mo₂C phase even at the high WHSV by increasing the rate of hydrocarbon activation and the surface carbon species concentration. We could not find any published papers investigating Mo₂C-based catalysts for the POX of jet fuel. However, there are a few papers investigating the catalytic performance of Mo₂C toward different reforming reactions or investigating the POX of jet fuel using different types of Mo-based catalysts. For example, Marin et al. [43] studied the performance of Mo₂C catalysts for isooctane steam reforming. They found that a short H₂ pretreatment was needed to eliminate high oxidation states of Mo on the catalyst surface, namely oxycarbide Mo₅+ and trioxide Mo₆+ . Although the catalyst showed high activity at 850 °C and S/C of 1, it was also tested at a low weight-hourly-space-velocity (WHSV) of 1.8 h⁻¹ and only initial performance was observed without long-term stability tests. MoO₂ particles were also investigated by Choi for POX of n-dodecane. It showed 60.8% of H₂ yield and 87.4% of carbon conversion at low WHSV of 6.4 h⁻¹ [67]. MoO₂-based reforming systems exhibit optimum performance at low WHSVs due to the phase stability issue of MoO₂, which leads to the low H₂ production rate. For our current manuscript using a Ni-Mo₂C catalyst, we were able to achieve both high H₂ yield of 56% and high conversion of 90% at high WHSV of 42 h⁻¹ for POX of n-dodecane. In order to achieve both high conversion and high H₂ yield at the high WHSVs, the catalysts must be able to process a large volume of fuel per unit time. Our Ni-Mo₂C catalyst can efficiently process the fuel at a WHSV of 42 h⁻¹, which indicates that it possesses high catalytic activity compared to previously studied MoO₂ catalysts under similar reforming conditions.

To further verify the role of metallic Ni for the POX reaction, the

surface reaction of hydrocarbons (CH₄) over Mo₂C and Ni-modified Mo₂C catalysts was studied using CH₄-TPR. The CH₄-TPR was performed by loading 50 mg of the sample in a quartz tube reactor. The sample was preheated at 400 °C for 15 min under flowing Ar to remove adsorbed CO₂ and H₂O, and then it was cooled down to room temperature. The sample was heated from room temperature to 950 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min in flowing 10% CH₄/Ar (50 mL/min) and maintained at 950 °C for 30 min. Fig. 5 shows the results of CH₄-TPR experiments over the carbide samples in a gas stream of 10%CH₄/Ar. The consumption of CH₄ (along with the formation of CO, H₂, CO₂, and H₂O) was observed at 580 and 770 °C for Ni-Mo₂C and Mo₂C, respectively. These peaks are ascribed to an oxygen-assisted CH₄ oxidation to form CO and H₂. The oxygen source could be either the passivated carbide layers or the incomplete carburization of molybdenum oxide precursors (i.e., NiMoO₄ or MoO₃) [60,66]. Once all the surface oxygen species are consumed, the CH₄ can decompose into H₂ and elemental carbon at the high temperature if the catalysts are active for CH₄ activation. Only the Ni-Mo₂C sample showed this high temperature CH₄ activation at 950 °C, which indicates that the Mo₂C sample without Ni did not have sufficient CH₄ activity under the oxygen-deficient condition. Due to this poor activity of CH₄ activation, Mo₂C without Ni is oxidized by oxidizing agents (i.e., molecular O₂ or from CO₂ and H₂O reforming products) during POX and subsequently deactivates.

In the case of Ni-Mo₂C with the high hydrocarbon dissociation rate, there is an establishment of a “catalytic oxidation and re-carburization cycle” due to the synergistic effects between Mo₂C and metallic Ni. In this catalytic cycle shown in Fig. 6, the molecular oxygen is activated over the Mo₂C surface and the activated oxygen species react with lattice carbon of Mo₂C to form both CO and carbon vacancies (Reactions (7) and (8)). Hydrocarbons are decomposed into H₂ gas and surface carbons over the metallic Ni sites (Reaction (9)). To regenerate the Mo₂C phase and sustain the catalytic cycle, the Mo₂C_{1-x} phase (i.e., Mo₂C with the carbon vacancies) is re-carburized by the surface carbons deposited on the metallic Ni sites (Reaction (10)). By regulating

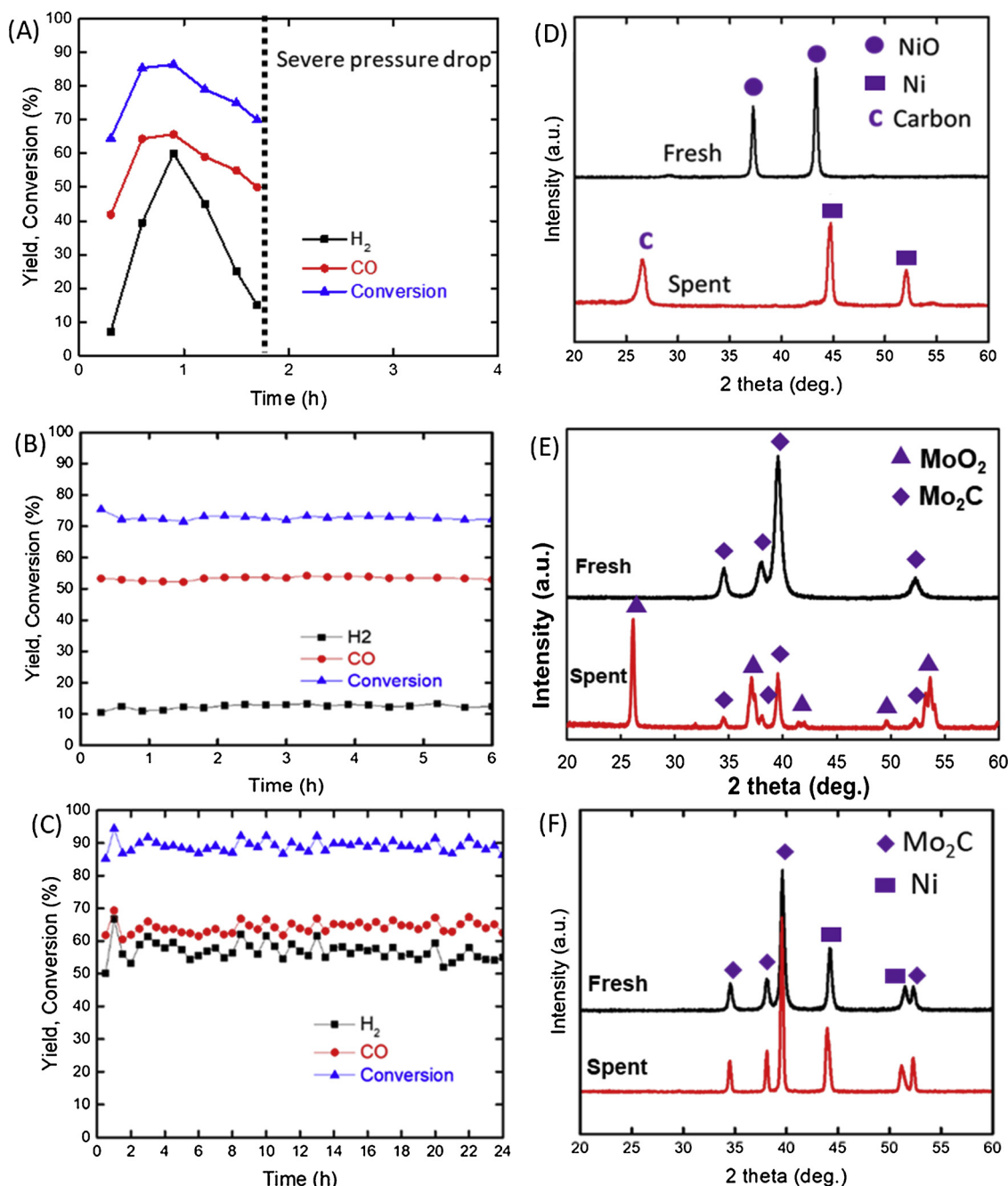
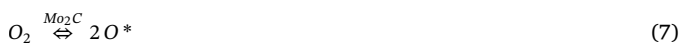


Fig. 4. Catalytic activity of Ni (A), Mo₂C (B) and Ni-Mo₂C (C) for partial oxidation of *n*-dodecane at temperature of 750 °C, O₂/C of 0.6 and WHSV of 42 h⁻¹ and their XRD (D), (E), and (F), respectively.

the molar ratio of Ni and Mo₂C, a catalytic oxidation-re carburization cycle could be established and the net oxidation of carbides could be avoided [60].



An oxygen pulsing experiment was conducted to seek direct evidence about the activation of O₂ over Mo₂C. In this experiment,

consecutive 5-s pulses of reactive gas (25% O₂ in Ar) were sent to the Mo₂C sample at 750 °C and 1 atm between 2 min purges of Ar. The gas product composition was analyzed as shown in Fig. SI 3. CO and CO₂ are detected as soon as the reaction starts due to the activation of O₂ over Mo₂C followed by the reaction of this activated oxygen with lattice carbons from Mo₂C (Reactions (7) and (8)). With time increasing, the concentrations of CO₂ and CO decrease with increasing O₂ concentration until the Mo₂C phase is completely converted into MoO_x, where there are no lattice carbons available to react with the activated oxygen. This oxygen pulsing experimental result clearly supports the high O₂ activation over Mo₂C.

We also prepared various physical mixture samples with different Ni/Mo₂C molar ratios. Fig. SI 4 (A) shows the XRD patterns of the as-prepared Ni/Mo₂C physical mixture samples. The peaks at 34.5, 38.1,

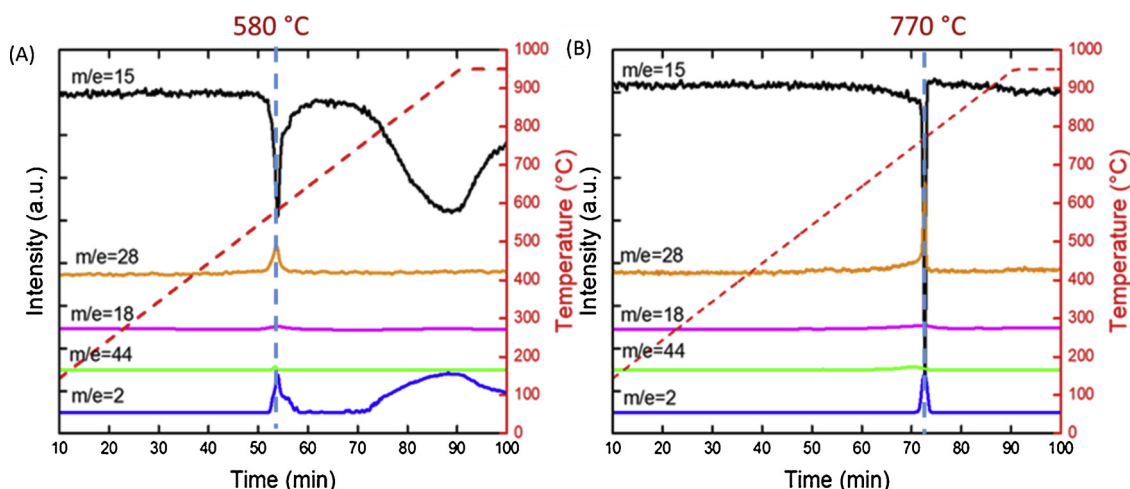


Fig. 5. CH₄-TPR profiles of (A) Ni-Mo₂C and (B) Mo₂C.

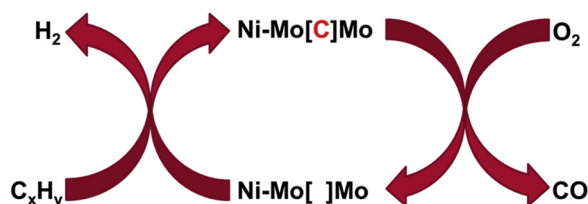


Fig. 6. Catalytic oxidation-reduction cycle over Ni-Mo₂C.

39.5, and 52.3° could be assigned to Mo₂C. In the case of Ni species, the peaks at 44.1 and 51.5° could be attributed to Ni metal, and these became more intense with increasing Ni/Mo molar ratio. The catalytic performance of Ni/Mo₂C physical mixture samples for POX of *n*-dodecane at 750 °C is shown in Fig. SI 5. The XRD data of the spent samples (Fig. SI 4 (B)) revealed that the deactivation of Ni-Mo₂C with a molar ratio of 0.5 was due to Mo₂C bulk oxidation whereas the deactivation of Ni-Mo₂C with a molar ratio of 5 was due to coke formation. At a Ni/Mo molar ratio of 1, the balance between catalyst oxidation and re-carburization could be established because the rate of O₂ activation matches the rate of hydrocarbon dissociation. Hence, coke formation and Mo₂C bulk oxidation are avoided.

Based on our proposed catalytic cycle shown in Fig. 6, the lattice carbon in Mo₂C catalysts acts as one of the key intermediate species for POX of hydrocarbons. To confirm the role of the lattice carbon for the POX reaction, ¹³C labelled Ni-Mo₂C (Ni-Mo₂¹³C) was prepared and an isotope exchange study performed. The Ni-Mo₂¹³C was prepared in a fixed bed reactor, in which ¹³CH₄ (50 mL/min) was fed to a NiMoO₄ sample at 700 °C (Fig. SI 6 shows the XRD of isotope-labeled catalyst).

In the isotope exchange study, 50 mg of Ni-Mo₂¹³C was loaded into a quartz tube and heated in flowing He to 750 °C. Consecutive 5-s pulses of reactive gas (8 mL/min ¹²CH₄ and 19.8 mL/min air mixture at O₂/C of 0.5) was introduced to the catalyst at 750 °C and 1 atm between 2 min purges of He. The products were analyzed using on-line mass spectrometry. The selectivity to isotope-labelled carbon oxide during the pulsing of the mixture of ¹²CH₄/O₂ is shown in Fig. 7. The relative intensity of ¹³CO and ¹²CO were 54% and 46%, respectively, for the first pulse over Ni-Mo₂¹³C. Obviously, the ¹³CO is produced from the oxidation of the lattice carbon in Mo₂¹³C. This suggests that the lattice carbon in the carbide takes part in the reaction. The relative intensity of ¹³CO decreased, while the ¹²CO content increased for the second pulse. As pulsing continued, the yield of ¹³CO continuously decreased, a result of the consumption of a fixed amount of the ¹³C in the catalyst over time. Fig. SI 7 shows the XRD of the spent sample, indicating that bulk phase transformation did not occur. These results support our proposed reaction mechanism that the lattice carbon in the carbide catalyst is

involved in the POX reaction as described in Fig. 6.

Conventionally, TPR of MoO_x in a gas flow of CH₄ and H₂ is used to prepare carbide catalysts [41]. To the best of our knowledge, there is no report on a direct *in-situ* synthesis of carbides in flowing *n*-dodecane/air at the reaction conditions. In this part of the work, we studied the feasibility for *in-situ* synthesis of Mo₂C and Ni-Mo₂C under the POX condition of *n*-dodecane from MoO₂ and NiMoO₄, respectively. The oxide was first heated from room temperature to 750 °C in a feed of N₂ gas, then a mixture of *n*-dodecane and air was introduced to the reactor at the same reforming conditions (O₂/C = 0.6 and WHSV = 42 h⁻¹). The sample was taken from the reactor after 30 min of feeding the *n*-dodecane/air mixture for further characterization. The XRD patterns of MoO₂ and NiMoO₄ catalyst after *in-situ* carburization in *n*-dodecane/air mixture are shown in Fig. 8.

In the case of MoO₂, the XRD pattern shows the peaks of MoO₂, indicating that Mo₂C cannot be synthesized *in-situ* during the POX reaction. When NiMoO₄ was used, only peaks attributable to Mo₂C and Ni metal are observed. These results indicate that NiMoO₄ could be carburized to Ni-Mo₂C in a flow of *n*-dodecane/air in a short time. The performance of the NiMoO₄ catalyst for the POX of *n*-dodecane was evaluated using the *in-situ* synthesis method of the carbide at 750 °C for 90 h (Fig. 9). The NiMoO₄ catalyst showed high activity and stability without any indication of oxidation or carbon formation, which was supported by the XRD pattern of the spent sample. These results confirm the possibility of utilizing the *in-situ* synthesis method of Ni-Mo₂C starting from NiMoO₄ without the need for a conventional temperature programmed reaction procedure, in which gaseous hydrocarbons and hydrogen are reacted over molybdenum oxide precursors at a slow heating rate over one day.

An additional test was performed to measure the activity of Ni-Mo₂C synthesized from the *in-situ* carburization method for the POX of actual jet fuel. As observed in Fig. 10, after 24 h of operation the catalyst remained stable with average H₂ and CO yields of 44% and 66%, respectively, and an average conversion of 90%. The blank run (without catalyst) showed H₂ yield, CO yield, and conversion of 2.5%, 53%, and 75%, respectively. For comparative purposes, Ni by itself showed a performance similar to that of the blank run with very severe coking. Fig. SI 8 showed that Ni-Mo₂C has relatively less coke formation than Ni when running POX of actual jet fuel at the high WHSV. Thus, based on these results, Ni-Mo₂C appears to cope well with the issues related to the use of aviation fuels, specifically coke formation.

4. Conclusion

In this work, Mo₂C and Ni-Mo₂C were synthesized from CH₄/H₂ carburization of previously prepared MoO₃ and NiMoO₄, respectively.

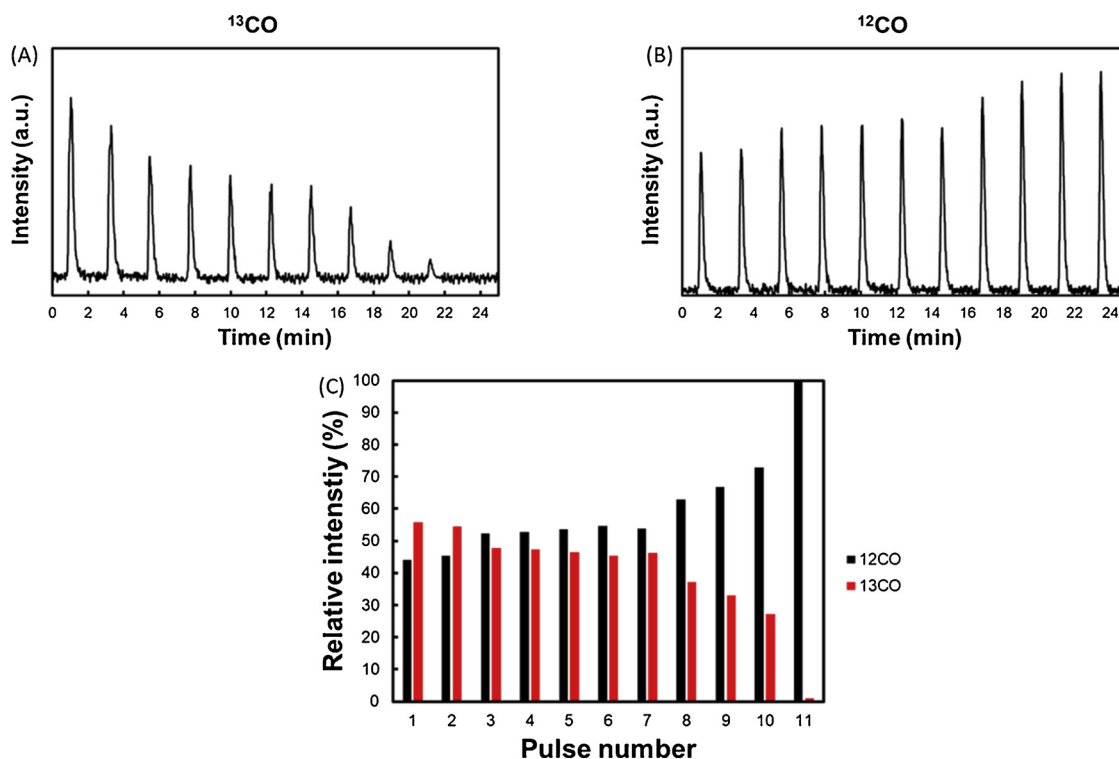


Fig. 7. Distribution of ^{12}CO and ^{13}CO as a function of pulse numbers. For each pulse, the mixture of $^{12}\text{CH}_4/\text{O}_2$ with a fixed volume was introduced to ^{13}C labelled Ni-Mo $_2\text{C}$ (Ni-Mo $_2^{13}\text{C}$) at 750 °C and 1 atm.

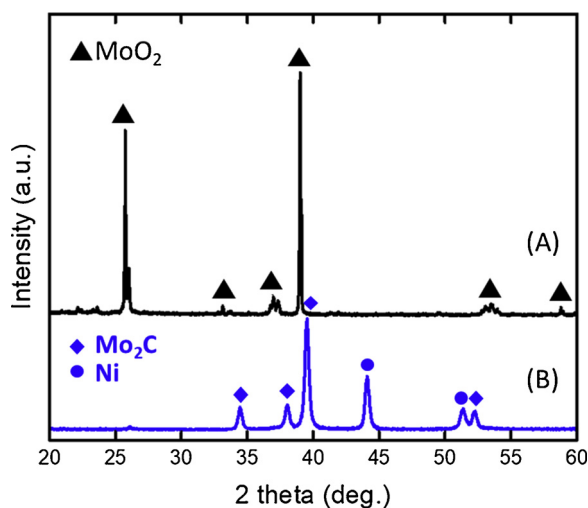


Fig. 8. XRD patterns of MoO_2 (A) and NiMoO_4 (B) after *in-situ* carburization in *n*-dodecane/air mixture at 750 °C for 30 min.

Our H_2 -TPR results showed that compared with MoO_3 and NiO , the reduction of NiMoO_4 requires a lower energy as evidenced by the peak shifting to lower temperatures. It is clear that the presence of Ni has a substantial effect on the reduction of Mo oxide species. The CH_4/H_2 -TPC results are consistent with the H_2 -TPR observations that the H_2 decomposes and reduces NiMoO_4 to Ni metal and MoO_x at the lower temperature (below 500 °C). At higher temperatures than 500 °C, CH_4 dissociates over metallic Ni to promote the MoO_x conversion into Mo_2C . Based on CH_4/H_2 -TPC results, the carburization temperature of MoO_x to Mo_2C is lowered by the presence of Ni.

In-situ XRD experiments were conducted to understand the phase transformation of MoO_2 and NiMoO_4 to $\beta\text{-Mo}_2\text{C}$ and $\text{Ni-Mo}_2\text{C}$, respectively, during the carburization reaction. The results are consistent with the TPC observation that NiMoO_4 decomposes and reduces first to Ni

metal and MoO_2 where the presence of Ni metal enhances hydrocarbon (CH_4) dissociation to promote the transformation of MoO_2 into Mo_2C . In the case of pure MoO_2 , full carburization to Mo_2C was not achieved even after 10 h without the metallic Ni phase, which indicates that either (a) more time, (b) higher CH_4 concentration, or (c) higher temperatures were needed to achieve the complete phase transformation. Carburized materials were utilized as catalysts for the POX of *n*-dodecane at the high WHSV of 42 h^{-1} . Mo_2C showed a performance similar to that of the blank run (in the absence of catalyst) due to the partial transformation of the catalyst to the MoO_2 phase. On the other hand, Ni-Mo $_2\text{C}$ catalyst exhibits the excellent performance over the 90 h test period, showing carbon conversion around 90% with H_2 and CO yields of 56 and 63%, respectively. The POX reaction over Ni catalysts (as reference) showed severe deactivation due to the formation of carbon deposits over the catalyst surface. The TPR and isotopic exchange experiments showed that Ni-Mo $_2\text{C}$ follows the “catalytic oxidation and re-carburization cycle.” In this catalytic cycle, molecular oxygen is activated over Mo_2C and these activated oxygen species react with lattice carbons to form both CO and carbon vacancies. Hydrocarbons are decomposed into H_2 gas and surface carbons over the metallic Ni sites. To regenerate the Mo_2C phase and sustain the catalytic cycle, the non-stoichiometric $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}_{1-x}$ phase with carbon vacancies is re-carburized by the surface carbons deposited on the metal sites. Finally, our results indicated that Ni-Mo $_2\text{C}$ can be prepared using *in-situ* carburization with a flowing *n*-dodecane/air mixture at 750 °C. The resulting product showed excellent POX performance toward *n*-dodecane and actual jet fuel.

Acknowledgement

This work was financially supported by the Office of Naval Research (Grant No. N00014-15-1-2416).

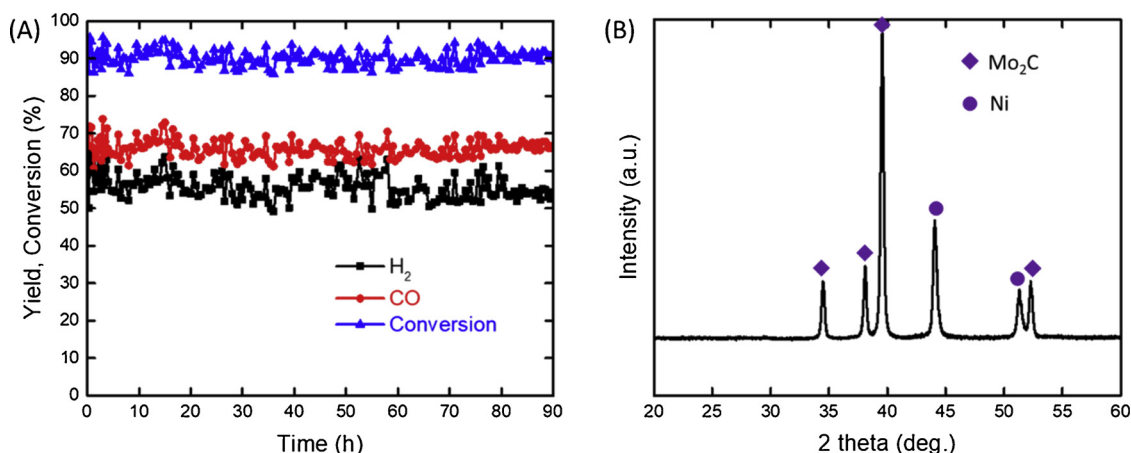


Fig. 9. Catalytic activity of Ni- Mo_2C (synthesized from the *in-situ* carburization using *n*-dodecane/air mixture) for the partial oxidation of *n*-dodecane at temperature of 750 °C and O_2/C of 0.6 (A) and its XRD data after the 90 h of the partial oxidation reaction (B).

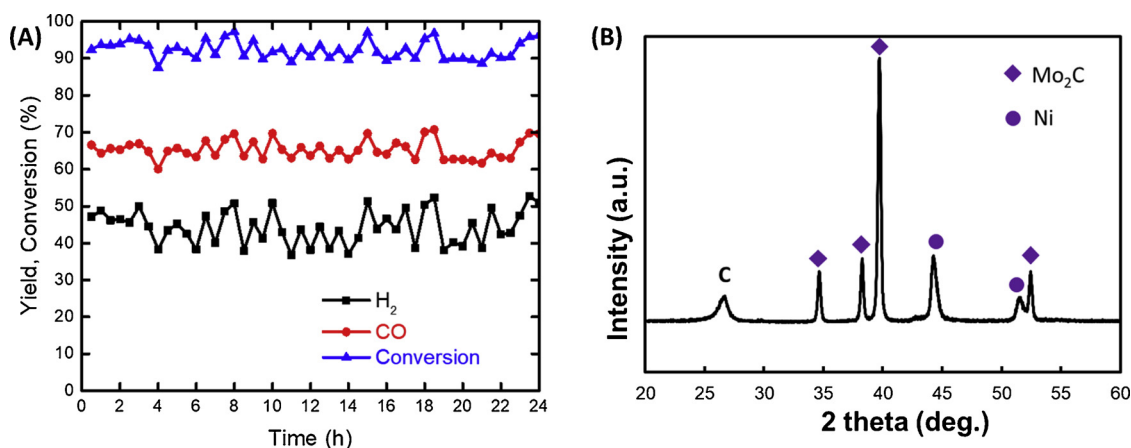


Fig. 10. Catalytic activity of Ni- Mo_2C (synthesized from the *in-situ* carburization using *n*-dodecane/air mixture) for the partial oxidation of actual jet fuel at temperature of 750 °C and O_2/C of 0.6 (A) and its XRD after the 24 h of the partial oxidation reaction (B).

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2019.01.027>.

References

- [1] O. Marin-Flores, T. Turba, C. Ellefson, K. Wang, J. Breit, J. Ahn, et al., Nanoparticle molybdenum dioxide: a highly active catalyst for partial oxidation of aviation fuels, *Appl. Catal. B Environ.* 98 (3–4) (2010) 186–192.
- [2] O. Marin-Flores, T. Turba, C. Ellefson, L. Scudiero, J. Breit, M.G. Norton, et al., Sulfur poisoning of molybdenum dioxide during the partial oxidation of a Jet-A fuel surrogate, *Appl. Catal. B Environ.* 105 (1–2) (2011) 61–68.
- [3] K. Zhao, X. Hou, Q. Bkour, M.G. Norton, S. Ha, NiMo-ceria-zirconia catalytic reforming layer for solid oxide fuel cells running on a gasoline surrogate, *Appl. Catal. B Environ.* 224 (2018) 500–507.
- [4] K. Zhao, Q. Bkour, B.-H. Kim, M.G. Norton, S. Ha, NiMo-ceria-zirconia catalyst for inert-substrate-supported tubular solid oxide fuel cells running on model gasoline, *Energy Technol.* [Internet] (2018), <https://doi.org/10.1002/ente.201700843> Available from: .
- [5] P.K. Cheekatamarla, C.M. Finnerty, Synthesis gas production via catalytic partial oxidation reforming of liquid fuels, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* 33 (19) (2008) 5012–5019.
- [6] W. Yanhui, W. Diyong, The experimental research for production of hydrogen from *n*-octane through partially oxidizing and steam reforming method, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* 26 (8) (2001) 795–800.
- [7] R.P. O'Connor, E.J. Klein, L.D. Schmidt, High yields of synthesis gas by millisecond partial oxidation of higher hydrocarbons, *Catal. Lett.* 70 (3–4) (2000) 99–107.
- [8] P.K. Cheekatamarla, A.M. Lane, Efficient bimetallic catalysts for hydrogen generation from diesel fuel, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* 30 (11) (2005) 1277–1285.
- [9] P.K. Cheekatamarla, A.M. Lane, Catalytic autothermal reforming of diesel fuel for hydrogen generation in fuel cells: I. Activity tests and sulfur poisoning, *J. Power Sources* 152 (1–2) (2005) 256–263.
- [10] J.J. Krummenacher, L.D. Schmidt, High yields of olefins and hydrogen from decane in short contact time reactors: rhodium versus platinum, *J. Catal.* 222 (2) (2004) 429–438.
- [11] Q. Bkour, K. Im, O.G. Marin-Flores, M.G. Norton, S. Ha, J. Kim, Application of Ti-doped MoO_2 microspheres prepared by spray pyrolysis to partial oxidation of *n*-dodecane, *Appl. Catal. A Gen.* 553 (2018) 74–81.
- [12] Q. Bkour, O.G. Marin-Flores, T.R. Graham, P. Ziaei, S.R. Saunders, M.G. Norton, et al., Nickel nanoparticles supported on silica for the partial oxidation of isooctane, *Appl. Catal. A Gen.* 546 (2017) 126–135.
- [13] B.D. Gould, A.R. Tadd, J.W. Schwank, Nickel-catalyzed autothermal reforming of jet fuel surrogates: *n*-Dodecane, tetralin, and their mixture, *J. Power Sources* 164 (1) (2007) 344–350.
- [14] W.-F. Chen, C.-H. Wang, K. Sasaki, N. Marinkovic, W. Xu, J.T. Muckerman, et al., Highly active and durable nanostructured molybdenum carbide electrocatalysts for hydrogen production, *Energy Environ. Sci.* 6 (3) (2013) 943.
- [15] H.O. Pierson, Applications of refractory carbides and nitrides, *Handbook of Refractory Carbides and Nitrides*, (1996), pp. 309–326.
- [16] C. Shi, S. Zhang, X. Li, A. Zhang, M. Shi, Y. Zhu, et al., Synergism in NiMoOx precursors essential for CH₄/CO₂ dry reforming, *Catal. Today* 233 (2014) 46–52.
- [17] J. Patt, D. Moon, C. Phillips, L. Thompson, Molybdenum carbide catalysts for water-gas shift, *Catal. Lett.* 65 (4) (2000) 193–195.
- [18] P. Liu, J.A. Rodriguez, Water-gas-shift reaction on molybdenum carbide surfaces: essential role of the oxycarbide, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 110 (39) (2006) 19418–19425.
- [19] H. Tominaga, M. Nagai, Density functional theory of water-gas shift reaction on molybdenum carbide, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 109 (43) (2005) 20415–20423.
- [20] Qusay Bkour, Christian Martin Cuba-Torres, Oscar G. Marin-Flores, Shalini Tripathi, N. Ravishankar, M. Grant Norton, S. Ha, Mechanistic study of the reduction of MoO_2 to Mo_2C under methane pulse conditions, *J. Mater. Sci.* [Internet] 53 (18) (2018) 12816–12827. Available from: <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10853-018-2549-0>.
- [21] B. Dhandapani, T. St. Clair, S.T. Oyama, Simultaneous hydrodesulfurization, hydrodeoxygenation, and hydrogenation with molybdenum carbide, *Appl. Catal. A Gen.* 168 (2) (1998) 219–228.
- [22] P. Da Costa, J.M. Manoli, C. Potvin, G. Djéga-Mariadassou, Deep HDS on doped molybdenum carbides: from probe molecules to real feedstocks, *Catalysis Today*,

- (2005), pp. 520–530.
- [23] J.A. Rodriguez, P. Liu, Y. Takahashi, K. Nakamura, F. Viñes, F. Illas, Desulfurization reactions on surfaces of metal carbides: photoemission and density-functional studies, *Topics in Catalysis*, (2010), pp. 393–402.
 - [24] P. Liu, J.A. Rodriguez, J.T. Muckerman, Desulfurization of SO₂ and thiophene on surfaces and nanoparticles of molybdenum carbide: unexpected ligand and steric effects, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 108 (40) (2004) 15662–15670.
 - [25] M.D. Porosoff, S. Kattel, W. Li, P. Liu, J.G. Chen, Identifying trends and descriptors for selective CO₂ conversion to CO over transition metal carbides, *Chem. Commun. (Camb.)* 51 (32) (2015) 6988–6991.
 - [26] M.D. Porosoff, X. Yang, J.A. Boscoboinik, J.G. Chen, Molybdenum carbide as alternative catalysts to precious metals for highly selective reduction of CO₂ to CO, *Ang. Chem. – Int. Ed.* 53 (26) (2014) 6705–6709.
 - [27] J. Han, J. Duan, P. Chen, H. Lou, X. Zheng, H. Hong, Carbon-supported molybdenum carbide catalysts for the conversion of vegetable oils, *ChemSusChem* 5 (4) (2012) 727–733.
 - [28] J. Han, J. Duan, P. Chen, H. Lou, X. Zheng, H. Hong, Nanostructured molybdenum carbides supported on carbon nanotubes as efficient catalysts for one-step hydrodeoxygenation and isomerization of vegetable oils, *Green Chem.* 13 (9) (2011) 2561.
 - [29] N. Ji, T. Zhang, M. Zheng, A. Wang, H. Wang, X. Wang, et al., Catalytic conversion of cellulose into ethylene glycol over supported carbide catalysts, *Catal. Today* 147 (2) (2009) 77–85.
 - [30] H. Ren, W. Yu, M. Saliccioli, Y. Chen, Y. Huang, K. Xiong, et al., Selective hydrodeoxygenation of biomass-derived oxygenates to unsaturated hydrocarbons using molybdenum carbide catalysts, *ChemSusChem* 6 (5) (2013) 798–801.
 - [31] Y. Wang, H. Wang, M. Wei, J. Ma, Study on the isomerization of n-hexane over β -zeolite supported molybdenum carbide catalyst, *Pet. Process Petrochem.* 39 (2008) 16–19.
 - [32] H. Tominaga, M. Nagai, Theoretical study of methane reforming on molybdenum carbide, *Appl. Catal. A Gen.* 328 (1) (2007) 35–42.
 - [33] T. Christofletti, J.M. Assaf, E.M. Assaf, Methane steam reforming on supported and non-supported molybdenum carbides, *Chem. Eng. J.* 106 (2) (2005) 97–103.
 - [34] D.C. Lamont, W.J. Thomson, Dry reforming kinetics over a bulk molybdenum carbide catalyst, *Chem. Eng. Sci.* 60 (13) (2005) 3553–3559.
 - [35] S. Politi JR dos, F. Viñes, J.A. Rodriguez, F. Illas, Atomic and electronic structure of molybdenum carbide phases: bulk and low Miller-index surfaces, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* 15 (30) (2013) 12617.
 - [36] D.C. LaMont, A.J. Gilligan, A.R.S. Darujati, A.S. Chellappa, W.J. Thomson, The effect of Mo₂C synthesis and pretreatment on catalytic stability in oxidative reforming environments, *Appl. Catal. A Gen.* 255 (2) (2003) 239–253.
 - [37] David C. LaMont, J. Thomson William, The influence of mass transfer conditions on the stability of molybdenum carbide for dry methane reforming, *Appl. Catal. A Gen.* 274 (1) (2004) 173–178. *Appl Catal A-GENERAL*. 2004;274(1).
 - [38] A.J. Brungs, A.P.E. York, J.B. Claridge, M. Carlos, M.L.H. Green, Dry reforming of methane to synthesis gas over supported molybdenum carbide catalysts, *Catal. Lett.* 70 (2000) 117–122.
 - [39] S. Naito, M. Tsuji, T. Miyao, Mechanistic difference of the CO₂ reforming of CH₄ over unsupported and zirconia supported molybdenum carbide catalysts, *Catalysis Today*, (2002), pp. 161–165.
 - [40] A.R.S. Darujati, W.J. Thomson, Stability of supported and promoted-molybdenum carbide catalysts in dry-methane reforming, *Appl. Catal. A Gen.* 296 (2) (2005) 139–147.
 - [41] A. Zhang, A. Zhu, B. Chen, S. Zhang, C. Au, C. Shi, In-situ synthesis of nickel modified molybdenum carbide catalyst for dry reforming of methane, *Catal. Commun.* 12 (9) (2011) 803–807.
 - [42] P.K. Cheekatamarla, W.J. Thomson, Hydrogen generation from 2,2,4-trimethyl pentane reforming over molybdenum carbide at low steam-to-carbon ratios, *J. Power Sources* 156 (2) (2006) 520–524.
 - [43] O.G. Marin Flores, S. Ha, Study of the performance of Mo₂C for iso-octane steam reforming, *Catal. Today* 136 (3–4) (2008) 235–242.
 - [44] N. Dharmaraj, P. Prabu, S. Nagarajan, C.H. Kim, J.H. Park, H.Y. Kim, Synthesis of nickel oxide nanoparticles using nickel acetate and poly(vinyl acetate) precursor, *Mater. Sci. Eng. B Solid-State Mater. Adv. Technol.* 128 (1–3) (2006) 111–114.
 - [45] L. Fang, Y. Shu, A. Wang, T. Zhang, Green synthesis and characterization of anisotropic uniform single-crystal α -MoO₃ nanostructures, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 111 (6) (2007) 2401–2408.
 - [46] S. Zhang, C. Shi, B. Chen, Y. Zhang, Y. Zhu, J. Qiu, et al., Catalytic role of β -Mo₂C in DRM catalysts that contain Ni and Mo, *Catal. Today* 258 (2015) 676–683.
 - [47] C. Shi, A. Zhang, X. Li, S. Zhang, A. Zhu, Y. Ma, et al., Ni-modified Mo₂C catalysts for methane dry reforming, *Appl. Catal. A Gen.* 431–432 (2012) 164–170.
 - [48] M. Broda, A.M. Kierzkowska, D. Baudouin, Q. Imtiaz, C. Copéret, C.R. Müller, Sorbent-enhanced methane reforming over a Ni-Ca-based, bifunctional catalyst sorbent, *ACS Catal.* 2 (8) (2012) 1635–1646.
 - [49] Qusay Bkour, Kai Zhao, Louis Scudiero, Chang Won Yoon, Oscar G. Marin-Flores, M. Grant Norton, S.u Ha, Synthesis and performance of ceria-zirconia supported Ni-Mo nanoparticles for partial oxidation of isooctane, *Appl. Catal. B-Environmental*. 212 (2017) 97–105.
 - [50] J. Sá, Y. Kayser, C.J. Milne, D.L. Abreu Fernandes, J. Szlachetko, Temperature-programmed reduction of NiO nanoparticles followed by time-resolved RIXS, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* 16 (17) (2014) 7692–7696.
 - [51] T. Bhaskar, K.R. Reddy, C.P. Kumar, Murthy MRVS, K.V.R. Chary, Characterization and reactivity of molybdenum oxide catalysts supported on zirconia, *Appl. Catal. A Gen.* 211 (2) (2001) 189–201.
 - [52] J.B. de Paiva Jr, W.R. Monteiro, M.A. Zacharias, J.A.J. Rodrigues, G.G. Cortez, Characterization and catalytic behavior of MoO₃/V₂O₅/Nb₂O₅ systems in isopropanol decomposition, *Brazilian J. Chem. Eng.* 23 (04) (2006) 517–524.
 - [53] M. Alibouri, S.M. Ghoreishi, H.R. Aghabozorg, Hydrodesulfurization of dibenzothiophene using CoMo/Al-HMS nanocatalyst synthesized by supercritical deposition, *J. Supercrit. Fluids* 49 (2) (2009) 239–248.
 - [54] Y. Wang, G. Xiong, X. Liu, X. Yu, L. Liu, J. Wang, et al., Structure and reducibility of NiO-MoO₃/ γ -Al₂O₃ catalysts: effects of loading and molar ratio, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 112 (44) (2008) 17265–17271.
 - [55] K.V.R. Chary, T. Bhaskar, G. Kishan, K.R. Reddy, Characterization and reactivity of molybdenum oxide catalysts supported on niobia, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 105 (19) (2001) 4392–4399.
 - [56] J.L. Brito, A.L. Barbosa, Effect of phase composition of the oxidic precursor on the HDS activity of the sulfided molybdates of Fe(II), Co(II), and Ni(II), *J. Catal.* 171 (2) (1997) 467–475.
 - [57] L. Madeira, M. Portela, C. Mazzocchia, A. Kaddouri, R. Anouchinsky, Reducibility of undoped and Cs-doped α -NiMoO₄ catalysts: kinetic effects in the oxidative dehydrogenation of n-butane, *Catal. Today* 40 (2–3) (1998) 229–243.
 - [58] J.L. Brito, a.L. Barbosa, Effect of phase composition of the oxidic precursor on the HDS activity of the sulfided molybdates of Fe (II), Co (II), and Ni (II), *J. Catal.* 171 (1997) 467–475.
 - [59] J. Cheng, W. Huang, Effect of cobalt (nickel) content on the catalytic performance of molybdenum carbides in dry-methane reforming, *Fuel Process Technol.* 91 (2) (2010) 185–193.
 - [60] J. Guo, A.J. Zhang, A.M. Zhu, Y. Xu, C.T. Au, C. Shi, A carbide catalyst effective for the dry reforming of methane at atmospheric pressure, *ACS Symposium Series*, (2010), pp. 181–196.
 - [61] T. HIROSE, Y. OZAWA, M. NAGAI, Preparation of a nickel molybdenum carbide catalyst and its activity in the dry reforming of methane, *Chin. J. Catal.* 32 (5) (2011) 771–776.
 - [62] A.W. Sleight, B.L. Chamberland, Transition metal molybdates of the type AMoO₄, *Inorg. Chem.* 7 (8) (1968) 1672–1675.
 - [63] J.L. Brito, A.L. Barbosa, A. Alborno, F. Severino, J. Laine, Nickel molybdate as precursor of HDS catalysts: effect of phase composition, *Catal. Lett.* 26 (3–4) (1994) 329–337.
 - [64] C. Mazzocchia, C. Aboumrar, C. Diagne, E. Tempesti, J.M. Herrmann, G. Thomas, On the NiMoO₄ oxidative dehydrogenation of propane to propene: some physical correlations with the catalytic activity, *Catal. Lett.* 10 (3–4) (1991) 181–191.
 - [65] Y. Duan, R. Shang, X. Zhong, W. Xie, X. Wang, L. Huang, In-situ synthesis of Ni-Mo₂C/Al₂O₃ catalysts for dry reforming of methane, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* 41 (47) (2016) 21955–21964.
 - [66] C. Shi, A. Zhang, X. Li, S. Zhang, A. Zhu, Y. Ma, et al., Ni-modified Mo₂C catalysts for methane dry reforming, *Appl. Catal. A Gen.* 431–432 (2012) 164–170.
 - [67] H. Choi, D. Kim, S.P. Yoon, J. Han, S. Ha, J. Kim, Production of molybdenum oxide particles with high yield by ultrasonic spray pyrolysis and their catalytic activity toward partial oxidation of n-dodecane, *J. Anal. Appl. Pyrolysis* 112 (2015) 276–283.